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ABSTRACT

This study attempts to answer Andrews' (1991) question, "do perceptions of advertising in general vary cross-culturally?" Eighty-two undergraduate students from the former Soviet Union republic of Kazakstan were questioned about their beliefs about advertising. The analysis revealed predominantly negative feelings toward advertising in general. Findings indicate unfamiliarity or general distrust of advertising and uncertainty about the role and potential of advertising to improve the quality of life in the country. A discussion about advertising in Kazakstan's emerging capitalist economy is also included. (Contains 29 references and 2 tables of data.) (Author/RS)

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Perceptions of Advertising in the Newly Independent States:

Kazakstani Students' Beliefs About Advertising

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Perceptions of Advertising in the Newly Independent States:

Kazakstan Students' Beliefs About Advertising

Abstract

This study attempts to answer Andrews' (1991) question, *do perceptions of advertising in general vary cross-culturally?* Eighty-two students from the former Soviet Union republic of Kazakstan were questioned about their beliefs about advertising. The analysis revealed predominantly negative feelings toward advertising in general. Findings indicate unfamiliarity or general distrust of advertising and uncertainty about the role and potential of advertising to improve the quality of life in the country. A discussion about advertising in Kazakstan's emerging capitalist economy is also included.

Perceptions of Advertising in the Newly Independent States: Kazakstani Students' Beliefs About Advertising

It has been almost ten years since the former Soviet Republics declared independence and began the transition to a capitalist society. Since that time much change has occurred in the newly independent state of Kazakstan. Outside investors have moved into the country, department stores, car dealers and American style bar & grills have sprung up in the larger cities (Davies, 1997). New independent media outlets have emerged alongside the government-controlled media, both carrying consumer–style advertising for the first time since the 1920s (Wells, 1994). While the transition has not been without problems (Davies, 1997), capitalism and advertising appear to be thriving in Kazakstan's largest city of Almaty (Brauer, 1995).

With the opening of new markets in the former Soviet Union, advertising practitioners and educators can benefit from understanding the attitudes toward advertising held by the people of this region. Andrews and his colleagues (1991) noted the importance of assessing international student's understanding of advertising not only to improve the effectiveness of teaching international students, but also to aid global marketers who will be hiring students to work in international markets.

Appreciating the different attitudes and perspectives about advertising in other countries also benefits faculty members who may teach abroad. As the U.S. State Department funds more opportunities to teach in the former Soviet Union (U.S. State Department, 2000), particularly in the areas of mass media, marketing and journalism, assessing students attitudes toward advertising in these countries is particularly important.

While several studies have been done to assess student's attitudes toward advertising in the U.S. (Andrews, 1989, Coyle et. al, 2000, Haller, 1974, Larkin, 1977, Muehling, 1987, Pollay & Mittal, 1993; Sandage & Leckenby, 1980), fewer cross-cultural studies of student's attitudes have been conducted (Andrews, Lysonski & Durvasula, 1991, Darley & Johnson, 1994, Manso-Pinto & Diaz, 1997). No such research in Kazakstan or other Newly Independent States were found with the exception of Russia (Andrews, Durvasula & Netemeyer, 1994).

Andrews (1991) and others appropriately asked the question – *do perceptions of advertising in general vary cross-culturally?* This paper attempts to answer part of this question by assessing the attitudes and beliefs of Kazakstani students toward advertising in general.

Background

Geography

Kazakstan is the largest Central Asian country geographically situated between Russia and China, bordering on the Caspian Se and the Aral Sea. The capital of Kazakstan was recently moved from Almaty, the location for data collection for this study, to Astana. However, Almaty remains the largest city and center of commerce. The population of Kazakstan is about 15 million (Sviridov, 2000) with over 1 million in Almaty ("Kazakstan," 1995).

Culture

Kazakstan is a multi-ethnic, multi-racial country. Kazaks constitute about 40% of the population and ethnic Russians make up another 40% (Finch, 1999). There are also Germans, Jews, Ukrainians, Uzbeks and Tartars living in the

country. Though Kazak is the official language of the country, most people in Kazakstan communicate in Russian ("Kazakstan", 1995). Two contrasting cultures dominate: the native Kazak or Asian culture, having historic roots in both Islam and Eastern culture; and, the Russian culture, having roots in Orthodox Christianity and European culture. The two cultures were brought into co-existence in the region primarily during Soviet rule when many Russians were moved to the area, and exist side-by-side with little conflict, though peoples of the two groups seldom inter-marry.

Neither culture totally dominates, however since independence, there has been a popular movement toward Kazak heritage and slight attempts have been made by the Kazaks to dominate the Russian population. For example, the constitution declares Kazak to be the national language of the country, though no more than half of the Kazakstani people speak the language effectively (Sviridov, 1999). To run for political office or to secure a government job one must prove they can speak Kazak. Another example is the increasing tendency for women to wear traditional Asian clothing of long, colorful dresses and headscarves instead of the western-style clothing they wore during Soviet times. Of all the Central Asian countries, Kazakstan is the most "Russified," however a strong sense of ethnic pride has developed among the native Kazaks since independence. As a result many Russian have emigrated from Kazakstan (Sviridov, 1999).

Politics

The president of Kazakstan, Nursultan Nazarbaev, a former communist official, was elected by an uncontested public election in December 1991 after the dissolution of the USSR ("Kazakstan," 1995). The country declared its independence at the same time and adopted a constitution in January 1993. The

constitution defines the nation as a "democratic, secular and university state" ("Kazakstan", 1995). Despite the trappings of a free system, Nazarbaev wields much power and maintains strict control over most aspects of Kazak society (Townsend, 1999), including the press (Katsiev, 1999).

Economy

Since 1991 there has been considerable western investment in Kazakstan. Many global marketers have introduced their products to the Kazakstani market where GDP in 1999 was $3200 per capita in U.S. dollars (Central Intelligence Agency, 2000). Multinational companies such as AT&T, Philip Morris, RJR Nabisco and Citibank have established offices Kazakstan (Davies, 1997).

The major attraction of Kazakstan to outside investors is the country's abundance of natural resources. Kazakstan has huge reserves of fossil fuel, some estimate it second only to Saudi Arabia, and is possibly the world's largest grain exporter (Sviridov, 1999). Additionally, the country ranks number one in the world in reserves of tungsten and second in reserves of chrome ore (Davies, 1997). The government has encouraged foreign investment by providing for duty-free imports and tax breaks particularly in the areas of oil and gas exploration ("Kazakstan," 1995). However, despite the abundance of natural resources and agricultural potential, the economy of Kazakstan is unstable (Sviridov, 1999).

Advertising

To support global marketers and capitalistic ventures, the advertising industry in Kazakstan has developed. Several multinational advertising agencies have affiliates in Almaty including Ogilvy & Mather, BBDO and Lentis (Internews Russia, 2000). There is also growth among Almaty-based advertising

agencies, though reports show that most local and regional advertisers produce their ads in-house or use the TV and radio stations to do so (Internews Russia, 2000).

It is difficult to estimate the dollars that are being spent on advertising in Kazakstan because of the incidence of barter, the fluctuation of the currency, and the unstable nature the economy. Reports by BRIF/Gallup Media Asia estimated ad spending on television alone in 1997 as high as $70 million and predicted it to double by the end of the century (BRIF/Gallup, 1997). However Kagan World Media believes that number to be closer to $25 million when barter and discounts are calculated (Kagan, 1996).

Consumer electronics, health and hygiene products, candy and tobacco are the main advertisers. Procter & Gamble reported spending of $800,000 per month on Almaty television. Unilever, and LG Electronics were spending in the range of $300,000 per month while Smithkline Beecham, Colgate, Wrigley, Mars, Samsund and Coca-Cola spent approximately $100,000 per month in 1997 (BRIF/Gallup, 1997). The production quality of the major advertisers is quite good and compares to European and U.S. ads. Production values of local advertisers' spots are much poorer.

There are several small commercial stations and two large national television stations in Kazakstan (Khabar and KZ-1). The large commercial Moscow station, ORT, is also broadcast in Kazakstan and is very popular with viewers because of its excellent news coverage and high-quality programming (Price, 1998). Ads seen on ORT primarily originate in Moscow and may not advertise products available in Almaty.

Education

Primary and secondary education is free and state funded. Most schools teach in the Russian language. There are three universities in Kazakstan with combined enrollments of about 285,000 students. The Al-Farabi Kazak State National University (KazGu) is the institution used in this study, and is the largest in Kazakstan with about 14,000 students studying in a variety of fields including law, international studies, economics, medicine, and journalism. Students at KazGu look similar to college students in the U.S.; they are typically between 18 and 22 year-old, come from urban areas and wear western style clothing. They are seem fairly knowledgeable of international events and are especially interested in American and Western European music, movies and fashion. Most of these students were born before Kazakstani independence, but have primarily grown-up in the more open, democratic system, with its variety of consumer products and mass advertising.

Previous Research

Student beliefs about advertising have been the subject of considerable research, and those beliefs have been found to be largely negative, at least in the U.S. Haller (1974) reported that U.S. college students found advertising "irritating, misleading, unnecessary and insulting to their intelligence." Larkin (1977) made a similar report that students' exhibited negative feelings toward advertising to varying degrees. Sandage & Leckenby (1980) also found negative attitudes toward advertising prevailed among students, though their study showed that U.S. students were more favorable toward advertising (the institution) than toward the ads (instruments).

Muehling (1987) further investigated attitude toward advertising in general (AG) by examining the underlying factors relating to it. Muehling recognized that attitudes toward advertising are multi-dimensional, consisting of attitudes toward the institution of advertising as well as attitudes toward the instruments used by advertisers. His study of undergraduate business majors was consistent with other findings in that respondents believed that advertising was essential but questioned some of the methods used by advertisers.

The few cross-cultural studies that have been conducted reveal that students in other countries have more positive attitudes toward advertising than students in the U.S. In one study that compared undergraduates from the United States, New Zealand, Denmark, Greece and India on their thoughts about advertising in general, researchers found that as ad expenditures and exposures increased, ad perceptions switch from function-related to practice-related issues (Andrews, Lysonski & Durvasula, 1991). Studies conducted at universities in Chile (Manso-Pinto & Diaz, 1997) and Russia (Andrews, Durvasula and Netemeyer, 1994) which are also transitioning into a free-market economy, found that students there have more positive beliefs toward advertising than their American counterparts.

Most of the studies on attitude toward advertising in general have relied on belief statements used by Bauer and Greyser (1968) in their study on advertising's economic and social effects. Andrews (1989) explained that these earlier investigations were actually measuring *beliefs* about advertising rather than *attitudes* toward advertising, and that the attitudes toward advertising in general (AG) are based on beliefs that in turn develop attitudes. This study

utilizes Bauer and Greyser's type belief statements as a measurement to tool to investigate Kazakstani student's beliefs toward advertising.

Research Questions

Two research questions are addressed in this study.

1. What are the prevailing beliefs about advertising in general held by Kazakstani students?
2. Do beliefs vary according to the gender or ethnicity of the student?

Methodology

Sample

Data were collected in a classroom setting from a non-probability sample of 82 undergraduate students at the Al-Farabi Kazak State National University (KazGu) in Almaty during May 2000. Six classes of students were sampled, three journalism classes, one geography class, and two international relations classes.

Overall, the students participating in this study were young (89% were 18 or younger) typically male (69%) and single (92%). The sample as a whole reflected a mixed ethnic background, 67% of the sample (n=55) identified themselves as Kazak, while 16% (n=13) were of Russian ethnicity. The remainder of subjects in this study identified themselves as Korean (n=4), Tartar (n=2), Jewish (n=1) and Urgu (n=1). The largest group in the study reported journalism as their college major (32%, n=26), followed by International Law (21%, n=17) and Undecided (18%, n=15). Other majors reported were International Relations (17%, n=14) and Geography (6%, n=5).

Instrument

The instrument consisted of a two page questionnaire containing 18 attitude statements about advertising accompanied by a five-point Likert scale

ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1), followed by five demographic questions (sex, major, marital status, college major and nationality). The questionnaire was derived from Larkin's study (1977) which contained statements designed to elicit information in four attitudinal areas including economic effects of advertising, social effects of advertising, ethics of advertising and regulation of advertising. Larkin used Bauer and Greyser's (1968) original eight "attitude toward advertising" statements on economic and social effects and added some additional statements. The current study therefore replicates these earlier studies in that it utilized the same statements for attitudinal measures (see Table One for questionnaire statements).

Procedure

Because Russian is the predominant language of instruction at the university, a U.S. advertising graduate student fluent in both English and Russian translated the questionnaire into Russian using the Cyrillic alphabet. A Kazakstani professor, fluent in English, Russian and Kazak, then back translated the questionnaire to ensure the correct meaning and cross cultural equivalence of measures (Berry, 1980). The back translation revealed no discrepancy in the meaning of the questions.

Students were given instruction on how to complete the questionnaire in Russian by a Kazakstani professor fluent in both English and Russian. Respondents were encouraged to answer the questions honestly and independently. They were also reminded that their answers would remain anonymous and be used for research purposes in the U.S. only. The researchers discovered in earlier data collection settings that these instructions were very important when surveying students in the former Soviet Union because there is a

culturally accepted practice of students copying each other's work in the classroom. Citizens of the former Soviet Union are also typically reluctant to speak honestly for fear that the information would be used against them by the government. Respondents completed the questionnaire in class, turned them into the researcher and were thanked for their participation.

Analysis

The objectives of this study centered around the identification of prevailing beliefs about advertising held by students in Kazakstan, and the exploration of differences among cultures by drawing upon studies conducted with students in other countries. The authors originally conducted a factor analysis of the ratings of the statements involved in the study, but the results were less than revealing and tended to load the majority of participants on two factors (reflecting a more positive or negative attitude toward advertising). A more informative way to accomplish our goal was to take a close look at the way in which the statements presented to the students were rated along the Likert scale from Strongly Agree (5) to Strongly Disagree (1), and to explore the implications of those ratings.

Completed questionnaires were coded into an Excel spreadsheet and analyzed using SPSS Version 10 for Macintosh. Statistical tools included frequencies, mean scores, t-tests and correlations.

Results

The analysis revealed that students in the sample have a substantial negative view of the advertising. A complete listing of the statements, the mean ratings, and standard deviations are listed in Table 1. An examination of the group of statements agreed with most strongly shows a clear pattern of

pessimism and distrust for the institution of advertising. The single statement most strongly agreed with by students in the sample was that "There is too much exaggeration in advertising today" (mean score: 4.13). This feeling is also reflected in other statements, such as "There is a need for more truth in advertising" (mean score: 4.09), and "Too many of today's advertisements are silly and ridiculous" (mean score: 4.07). Also representative of a pessimistic attitude, although scoring closer to the middle (neutral) of the scale were the statements "Advertisements should be more realistic" (mean score: 3.88), and "There should be less advertising" (mean score: 3.67).

An examination of statements with which students in the sample disagreed the most also indicates a negative view of advertising. The single statement that had the lowest mean agreement score, for example, was "In general, advertisements present a true picture of the product advertised" (mean score: 2.33). Other statements with which students disagreed reflected the same general attitude, including, "In general, advertising results in lower prices for products" (mean score: 2.62), and "Advertising results in better products for the public" (mean score: 2.77).

The standard deviations in Table 1, indicate that some statements were rated in high agreement by some students, and much less agreement by others therefore producing a mean rating close to the middle of the scale ("Neither agree nor disagree"). This does not necessarily indicate that the students were neutral on these statements, but rather shows that feelings were mixed among the sample. Statements falling into this category included "Most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer" (mean score: 3.43), and "There should be less advertising" (mean score: 3.67). Other statements falling near the middle of the

agreement scale, and showing higher standard deviations are "There should be less stress on sex in advertising" (mean score: 3.20), and "Advertising increases the cost of goods and services" (mean score: 3.30).

Differences between genders

Male and female students responded significantly different on only three statements in the questionairre. Though both genders were fairly neutral in response to the statement "There should be more government regulation of advertising," women (mean score = 3.32) were significantly more likely to agree than were men (mean score = 2.89, t=-2.118, p<.037). On the statement, "In general, advertising results in lower prices for products." men (mean score =2.5) were more likely to disagree while women (mean score= 2.95, t=-2.069,p<.045) were neutral, perhaps indicating that they were unsure about prices of products. This is not unlikely in a culture where men do most of the household shopping and control the family budget. Additionally, men (mean score= 4.19) found advertising to be much more silly and ridiculous than did women (mean score=3.77, t=2.248, p<.027).

Differences among ethnic groups

Given the ethnic diversity of this sample, differences in responses by Russian and Kazak students were of particular interest. Because of the relative small number of subjects in the other ethnic groups, it was impossible to examine those responses more deeply. The most dramatic difference between the Kazak and Russian students was in the relative agreement with the statement that "There should be less stress on sex in advertising." Slightly more than half (51%, n=28) of the Kazak students indicated either "Agree" or "Agree Strongly" with that statement, as opposed to only one of the Russian students. Students

identifying themselves as Russian were in more disagreement with this statement (mean rating=1.62) than those identifying themselves as Kazak (mean rating=3.40). This difference was significant (t=-19.43, p<.0001), and seems to indicate that the Islamic tradition of the Kazak students may influence their position on this statement. There were other differences in how the Kazak and Russian students rated statements, but none were significant.

Correlation among statement ratings

In addition to the basic ratings of the statements in this study, it is revealing to note some of the relationships between those statement ratings. In this way it is possible to see whether or not a strong disagreement with one statement would be associated with strong disagreement (or strong agreement) with other statements, particularly when those statements tend to reflect different attitudes. The intercorrelations for the most significant items are provided in Table 2.

Although there was a large degree of association among statements in the instrument, there was a single large group of statements that demonstrated intercorrelations to such a degree that they stood out from the others. In general, these statements all reflect a negative opinion about advertising among the sample, and the similar rating of these statements shows that this feeling is deep and consistent. For example, the rating of the statement that "There is too much exaggeration in advertising today" is significantly correlated with seven other statements in the study--more than any other. This statement is correlated with statements such as; "Advertising often persuades people to buy things that they really don't need or should not buy" (p<.0001); "Most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer" (p<.001); "There should be less stress on sex in

advertising" ($p<.013$); and "Advertising just tends to confuse people by presenting them with a bewildering choice of items and claims" ($p<.002$). This association is further verified by the significant negative correlation with ratings for the statement that, "In general, advertisements present a true picture of the product advertised" ($p<.008$).

Another group of statements that demonstrated a high degree of correlation seemed to display a different set of opinions about advertising among members of our sample. For example, agreement ratings for the statement that "Advertising is essential to the prosperity of our economy," is significantly correlated with statements such as; "Advertising helps raise our standard of living" ($p<.038$); and "Advertising results in better products for the public" ($p<.039$). Also in this group, we find a significant negative correlation with ratings for the statement that: "There should be less advertising" ($p<.001$).

There was only one statement in the group for which the rating scores did not correlate with any others. The statement that "There should be more government regulation of advertising" stood alone, but was one of only a two statements that showed a mean (2.99), median (3.0), and mode (3.0) at almost the same point on the five-point scale. The only other statement providing such consistency in these statistics was "Advertising helps raise our standard of living," also with a mean (2.98), median (3.0) and mode (3.0) that were very close. The standard deviations for ratings of these statements were .88 and .89 respectively, roughly in the middle of variances for all of the statements (average standard deviation was .89).

Similarly, there were only two statements whose ratings by the students correlated with only one other statement, possibly indicating an opinion that was

not fully reflected in the survey questions, or that these opinions were isolated from the mainstream. The statement that "Advertisements should be more realistic" was correlated only with the statement that "There is a need for more truth in advertising"($p<.017$). Similarly, the statement that "Advertising is making us a nation of conformists" was only correlated with the statement that "Advertising is making us a materialistic people--interested in owning and getting things" ($p<.$). Since these last two statements seem to be getting at the same basic concern about the effects of advertising in the culture, it is not surprising that they would show some association. The statement dealing with the nation of conformists, however, was significantly related to ratings of three other statements, all of which portray advertising as a negative influence in society.

Discussion

This study provides a glimpse at how an emerging democracy views the role of advertising in society. The findings reveal a predominantly negative view of advertising in general among college students in Kazakstan. Students in the study display suspicion of advertising, despite their society's struggle to embrace capitalism and reap its benefits through open competition and entrepreneurship. It seems that most do not, as yet, believe nor understand the role advertising plays in the process.

By comparison, American students also consistently display a skeptical view of the role of advertising, although the emphasis is clearly more on the practice than the institution (Haller, 1974; Larkin, 1977; Coyle, et.al. 2000). Studies of students from other countries (Andrews, Lysonski & Durvasula, 1991, Darley & Johnson, 1994, Manso-Pinto & Diaz, 1997), however, reveal a more

positive attitude toward advertising in general. In this sense, Kazakstani students are more similar to Americans than they are to their counterparts in other parts of the world.

With the Kazakstani students, the strains are not only suspicion, but also genuine distrust. Since the fall of the Soviet system, the economy has been poor in Kazakstan (Davies, 1999) and the NIS (Newly Independent States). New advertised products are expensive by Soviet standards. If available at all, they are of poor quality, leaving consumers to doubt what they read and see in the ads. It is understandable that, after seeing the first attempts at capitalism mislead and take advantage of the public, these students would naturally be slow to embrace all that many westerners believe advertising has to offer.

Kazakstani student's overall neutral position on the statement, "There should be more government regulation of advertising" indicates more about the role of government in society than it does about the role of advertising. It seems that students are afraid to criticize the government, regardless of promises of anonymity. The idea that a citizen should never criticize or comment on the government's actions still lingers from the Soviet era. Students equally neutral position on the statement "Advertising helps raise our standard of living" may indicate their insecurity about the economy. They may believe in theory that advertising, as a part of capitalism, should bring them a better standard of living; but, since their country has started on the road to capitalism most households' living standards have fallen.

The Islamic influence in Kazakstani society may also play a role, as indicated by the ethnically divided responses on the statement, "There should be less sex in advertising." In general the ethnic Kazaks are Sunni Muslims

("Kazaks", 1998) abiding by a traditional society grounded in the teachings of Islam. While historically Kazakstan's religious fervor is more moderate than its neighbors, such as Uzbekistan and Tajikistan, Islam is still a predominant part of the culture in Kazakstan, particularly among its young people who seem to be gravitating toward the Islamic resurgence in Central Asia ("Kazaks", 1998). Islamic tradition would dictate severe limitations on sex in advertising. The Russian population however, with its European roots, would have a much more liberal view of sex.

Lastly, advertising education is limited. Understanding advertising beyond the consumer prospective just doesn't exist. The students who participated in this project realize that advertising funds the media, but to what extent they are unsure. The press system in Kazakstan is not really free and they understand that (Katsiev, 1999). Additionally, most of the advertising they see on television originates in Moscow and has little bearing on life in Kazakstan (Price, 1995).

Limitations and Future Research

There are several limitations to this study. The sample is small and was conveniently constructed of students from one university in one country of the former Soviet Union. Generalizations to the entire country of Kazakstan or other NIS countries should be done with caution. The instrument and methodology chosen were among many that researchers have used to measure student attitudes toward advertising in general. Further studies using larger, more random samples, other recognized instruments and varying methodologies could provide additional conclusions. Despite these limitations and the need for

more research, this study can contribute some knowledge about advertising in a part of the world that is essentially unexplored by western media scholars.

Conclusions

As U.S. advertisers and advertising educators move to embrace emerging democracies in Central Asia, market products there, and teach and hire the young people, it will be necessary to know more about the population and their attitudes toward advertising. This understanding includes recognizing the hesitancy they may have to accept western practices in advertising, marketing, and promotion, as well as the cultural influences that make the acceptance more difficult. Life in the NIS may be "free", but it is not as comfortable as when the people were guaranteed a paycheck from the communist government and prices were government controlled. The capitalist system is not all it was promised to be, at least not yet. As a result, there should be no surprise that beliefs about advertising in the former Soviet Union are predominantly negative.

Table 1
Statistics for rankings of agreement with statements
Mean, Median, Mode, Standard Deviation, and Variance

Statement (n=82)	Mean Rating	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Variance
1. "Advertising is essential to the prosperity of our economy"	3.77	4.0	4	.76	.58
2. "Advertising often persuades people to buy things that they really don't need"	3.39	4.0	4	1.06	1.13
3. "In general, advertisements present a true picture of the product advertised"	2.33	2.0	2	.67	.45
4. "There should be less advertising"	3.67	4.0	4	.89	.79
5. "Advertising helps raise our standard of living"	2.98	3.0	3	.89	.79
6. "Most advertising insults the intelligence of the consumer"	3.43	4.0	4	.89	.80
7. "There is a need for more truth in advertising"	4.09	4.0	4	.83	.70
8. "Advertising results in better products for the public"	2.77	3.0	2	.97	.93
9. "Advertisements should be more realistic"	3.88	4.0	4	.84	.70
10. "There is too much exaggeration in advertising today"	4.13	4.0	4	.73	.54
11. "There should be more government regulation of advertising"	2.99	3.0	3	.88	.78
12. "In general, advertising results in lower prices for products"	2.62	3.0	2	.94	.88
13. "Too many of today's advertisements are silly and ridiculous"	4.07	4.0	4	.75	.56
14. "There should be less stress on sex in advertising"	3.20	3.0	4	1.03	1.05
15. "Advertising increases the cost of goods and services"	3.30	3.0	4	1.03	1.05
16. "Advertising just tends to confuse people by presenting them with a bewildering choice of items and claims"	3.27	3.0	4	.99	.99
17. "Advertising is making us a nation of conformists"	2.78	3.0	3	.91	.83
18. "Advertising is making us a materialistic people--interested in owning and getting things"	3.12	3.0	4	.96	.92

Table 2
Significance of Correlations among statements

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.
1.	.	-.04	.01	-.37	.23	.14	-.05	.23	-.14	.01	-.12	.15	-.14	-.08	-.05	-.16	-.07	-.16
sig		.724	.956	.001	.036	.205	.679	.039	.202	.913	.303	.170	.199	.457	.650	.146	.499	.141
2.		.	.06	.01	.06	.23	.09	.03	.11	.46	.03	.19	.26	.17	.13	.15	.13	.13
sig			.591	.950	.577	.044	.436	.825	.327	.000	.779	.093	.019	.137	.255	.194	.262	.230
3.			.	-.17	.28	.05	-.18	.24	-.08	-.29	.09	.00	-.35	-.06	.10	-.19	-.04	.11
sig				.130	.010	.666	.098	.032	.465	.008	.417	.971	.002	.603	.353	.087	.716	.326
4.				.	-.26	.14	.09	-.42	.19	.13	.11	-.20	.28	.03	.04	.24	.08	.12
sig					.018	.210	.431	.000	.081	.262	.348	.079	.012	.786	.697	.029	.475	.284
5.					.	.14	-.06	.33	-.15	-.07	.03	.12	-.11	.13	.01	.04	.03	.09
sig						.217	.569	.003	.169	.528	.781	.274	.332	.259	.498	.752	.807	.420
6.						.	.24	-.08	-.14	.37	-.20	.10	.07	.01	.11	.27	.17	.05
sig							.030	.476	.199	.001	.076	.358	.524	.951	.324	.017	.125	.688
7.							.	.08	.26	.08	-.10	.07	.09	.28	-.05	.00	.12	.03
sig								.456	.017	.464	.375	.513	.429	.011	.687	.987	.281	.768
8.								.	-.07	-.04	.03	.29	-.12	.20	-.02	-.18	-.13	-.06
sig									.492	.706	.794	.009	.293	.080	.879	.110	.252	.596
9.									.	.19	.15	.06	.05	.09	.04	.20	.13	.11
sig										.091	.183	.554	.632	.449	.696	.068	.258	.322
10.										.	.10	.16	.30	.27	.08	.46	.14	.26
sig											.381	.140	.007	.013	.496	.000	.226	.020
11.											.	.02	-.09	.11	-.17	.20	-.16	.21
sig												.829	.411	.322	.120	.070	.157	.064
12.												.	-.01	.09	-.52	-.08	-.07	-.03
sig													.909	.424	.000	.429	.527	.786
13.													.	.17	.26	.12	.12	.02
sig														.122	.019	.274	.305	.846
14.														.	-.05	.06	-.04	.25
sig															.688	.615	.687	.024
15.															.	.17	.18	.14
sig																.120	.112	.220
16.																.	.20	.22
sig																	070	.043
17.																	.	.35
sig																		.002
18.																		.
sig																		

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